[For information pertaining to the status and territorial organization of the Greek minority in the Soviet Union, see 21; Kolarz, R1 Soviet Union, category 116, p. 146.]

113, 248, 288, 439, 442 Greece EH1

[For information on agriculture, imports and exports, the textile industry and cotton production in Greece from a report published in 1952 by The National Cotton Council of America entitled "Cotton In The Middle East", see category 116, M1 Middle East, 29: Dunn, pp. 163-182.]

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[P 329]
[P. 328 is blank]

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The works below relate to mainland Greece and not to the islands. They deal with some aspect of rural life, though not exclusively. Omitted are many interesting travelers' accounts from the past century, as well as all publications in Greek. Where such sources have been used in a direct way, however, they have been cited in the notes. 1/A

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Recommended Reading

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Most of the items among the references cited can be considered as recommended reading as well.

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Comments of a sensitive writer on the Cyprus issue just before the independence of the island.

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MCNEILL, WILLIAM HARDY, 1957, *Greece: American Aid in Action 1947–1956*. New York: Twentieth Century Fund.
An excellent analysis which includes much material on Greek social and economic conditions.

MEGAS, GEORGE A., 1958, *Greek Calendar Customs*. Athens: Press and Information Department, Prime Minister's Office.
A useful, generalized description of customs associated with feasts and festivals.

SANDERS, IRWIN T., 1962, *Rainbow in the Rock: The People of Rural Greece*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
An indispensable general description of a kind not previously available.

SWEET-ESCOTT, BICKHAM, 1954, *Greece, a Political and Economic Survey 1939–1953*. New York: Royal Institute of International Affairs.
Fine analysis of World War II period.

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contrast to Lewis, has noted the challenge to family ties which upward mobility creates in the wider Mexican scene as he describes it.

I therefore suggest that peasant communities differ both with respect to whether they exist as part of a nation in which social mobility for peasants is characteristic, and also with respect to whether kin ties are maintained in spite of mobility. If my analysis of the Greek material is valid, the determination of whether one or both of these conditions exist may well be an essential part of the study of peasant communities, and should also be included in the criteria for peasant typologies. Since peasant societies are by definition part societies, the question of whether kinship is a mechanism by which peasant communities maintain connections with the nations of which they are a part would seem to be a query which is not only strategic but one which anthropologists are especially qualified to explore. The implications of such studies for a clearer understanding of the structure and functions of kinship in urban communities as well as in rural villages are already apparent from the results of the work recently done in this field (Firth 1956; Garigue 1956).

NOTES

[1] This is a revised version of a paper prepared for a symposium on European peasant cultures held at the annual meeting of the American Anthropological Association at Chicago in December, 1957.

The research on which the paper is based was conducted in 1955–56, supported by a grant made under the Fulbright Act and by supplementary funds from the Wenner-Gren Foundation for Anthropological Research. My husband, Harry L. Levy, Professor of Classics at Hunter College, participated in the field work.

[2] Renée Kahane of the University of Illinois, in a private communication, points out that Greek women not infrequently become nurses or dentists. Village girls, she adds, may also become domestic servants in the towns or in Athens. These particular alternatives were not reflected in the genealogies or other data we collected in Vasilika, Boeotia.

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193 551 indicating the members and partisans of a family or clan; e.g., Tsavaléi, Andromidhéi, Kolokotronéi, Petimezéi (Cf. Pernot, vol. I, p. 86).

177 601 Of the Modern Greek kinship terms listed above, most existed with the same or much the same meaning in Ancient Greek. However, the latter had a much richer and more varied vocabulary in the totality of its literature, and the reduction has been considerable. It included many non-Indo-European loan words of which *theîos* and *anepsiós*, among others, survive today. The modern loan words are kunyádhos, bárbas, yáya, and batzanákis, from Romance, Turkish, etc. The bulk of borrowings and replacements of common Indo-European kin terms had occurred already in ancient times. For instance, *adelphós, -é* (modern *adherfós*), literally "co-uterine" (from *delphýs*, womb, a word of uncertain origin), became the sibling terms in place of **phrâter* and [113] **eór* which dropped out before Homer. The full roster of classic and Homeric kin terms can be found in Miller's "Greek Kinship Terminology."

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milordos Thomas Alcock, comments unfavourably on the attire of the monks: "the want of neatness in the persons of these people", he remarks, "is too conspicuous", a failing our traveller denounces as one of the sure consequences of "an unnatural and unsocial life". Thomas Alcock, it is hardly necessary to add, found the mode of life and habits of Greek monks "little agreeable". "They flatter themselves", he writes, "that their recluse life places them out of the way of the vanities and vices of the world; but it may be doubtful if this retirement does not produce even more disgusting effects than any it may remove." Whatever may have been the condition of the monks of Megaspelaion in 1829, certainly to-day the great poverty which afflicts many of the surviving communities is sufficient explanation of some want of neatness in their members.

The costume which I have thus briefly described, inner and outer *rason* and the appropriate form of *kalymmafchion*, is the customary outdoor dress of the Greek ecclesiastic, regardless of his status or office: of the aspiring archimandrite, in silken gown and with rolled umbrella and brief-case, who hovers discreetly about the chambers of the Holy Synod, as of the village *papas* who labours at his plot of ground, or, with a train of pack-animals picks his way along the boulder-strewn bed of some water-course in trackless Pindos.

Within doors, though the parish priest may put off his tall hat and outer garment, he is seldom to be seen less formally apparelled. And in the mountain villages what more appropriate night-attire for an ecclesiastical person than a thick homespun *rason*: though holy tradition be silent and the Greek country parson abed be subject to no such irksome canonical prohibitions as his brother, tending his flock beneath the vigilant eye of His Beatitude the Archbishop of Canterbury, who is strictly charged that in the interests of decency, gravity and order, he shall not wear "any Coif or wrought Night-cap, but only plain Night-caps of black silk, satin, or velvet".

It is not my intention to embark upon a detailed description of the liturgical vestments of the Greek clergy. "It would be impossible", asserts Dr. King, "to give a description of the habits of the clergy . . . to an English reader without the assistance of figures: for as we have none which resemble them so we have no names in our language to express them by." The reader who would learn to distinguish an *epigonation* from an *epitrachelion* or would comprehend the mystical signification of

5:Hammond M-5 (1948-1950)1956
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793 292 [113] the stripes of red and white which adorn an episcopal *mandyas* and are called *pomata and potama*, may with great profit refer to the delightful engravings which illuminate that learned writer's discussion of these matters in his work on *The Rites and Ceremonies of the Greek Church in Russia*.

I will but refer briefly to the vestment known as the *phelonion*, which is of primary importance so far as the ordinary parish church is concerned. It is always worn by the celebrant at the liturgy and in its general appearance somewhat resembles the western cope, being of far more ample cut than the chasuble to which it in fact corresponds.

Dr. Covel (who has some diverting observations on this topic) connects it with the 'cloke' (*phailones*) which the Apostle asks Timothy to bring him from Troas (II Timothy, iv. 13), and with the ancient *penula* which was made in such fashion that "when the Head is put through the Top, all the rest hangs down round on all Sides, sloping like the Top of a round Tower or the Roof of a house . . . *Penula* was worn both by Men and Women in Winter upon their Journeys . . . purely to fence off Rain or cold Winter-like Weather. . . . *Tully* takes notice that it was a *pearable* Garment (and so much more becoming *St. Paul* and a *Greek* Priest), for he was excuseth *Milo* from being guilty of Murder from having it on: *cum Penula irretitus, when he was wrapt up in his winter Peticoat, what could be less prepared or fit for fighting?* For a man cannot handle a Sword or any Weapon under it, either to assault another or to defend himself." The *phelonion*, he continues, is "something like a Woman's Petticoat, with only a hole at the top to put their Heads through, and the rest of it hangs down round about their thighs to their ankles. It is richly wrought with Gold and Silver; and the poorest Parish Priest hath such a one, though of a meaner making".

So much for the *phelonion*. Of the other vestures worn by the clergy at their various offices I will only observe that in former days every church would normally possess a complete set, while a large urban parish where several clergy might concelebrate on a Sunday or a festival would as a rule be suitably furnished with the appropriate vestments. [822] The Greek Church has no scheme of liturgical colours: if a church possesses more than one vestment, the best will be brought out on high days without any regard to colour. The *kalymmafchion* is worn in church, as well as forming part of the outdoor attire of the clergy.

[727] To-day, alas, it can no longer be affirmed with any confidence of the *phelonion* that "the poorest Parish Priest hath such a one"—of however

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Hospital Care in Provincial Greece

*Ernestine Friedl**

Introduction

The rural population of the province of Boeotia in Greece now makes considerable use of hospital care for childbirth and for serious illness.[1] Both men and women, even those of the older generation, allow themselves to be hospitalized without objection, often, indeed quite willingly. This is a new phenomenon. It is a particularly interesting one because of the many psychological and practical obstacles in the way of the hospitalization of a Greek village patient. Traditionally, there has been a tendency to view hospitalization as a form of desertion of the sick person by the members of his family.[2] Transportation to and from the villages to the provincial town in which the hospitals are located is difficult and expensive. Besides, doctors' bills and hospital costs themselves are quite high by local standards.

Anthropologists have long been interested in the problem of introducing hospital care in rural regions where scientific medicine is not part of the culture. They have also studied attempts to improve the use of scientific medical facilities in cultures where science is known, but is only sporadically utilized by the rural population.[3] In either situation anthropologists regularly record the many difficulties encountered. The analysis of the reasons for the difficulties has resulted in the enunciation of certain principles, which may be summarized as follows: beliefs and practices associated with curing illness in any culture have important latent functions both for the personality of individuals and for the operation of the social structure. In other words, to maintain or to restore physical well-being is the manifest purpose and often

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2. Margaret Mead, ed., *Cultural Patterns and Technological Change*, UNESCO, 1953, p. 210.

3. William Caudill, "Applied Anthropology in Medicine," in *Anthropology Today*, A. L. Kroeber, ed., Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1953, pp. 771-806; Alexander H. Leighton and Dorothea C. Leighton, *The Navaho Door*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1944; Margaret Mead, *op. cit., passim*; Benjamin D. Paul, ed., *Health, Culture, and Community*, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1955, see especially pp. 31-34, 139, 231, and 261.

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the result of curing practices, but the means used depend upon and have some consequences for the economic, religious, and social organization of the society, for its belief systems, and for the psychological characteristics of individuals.[4]

Studies analyzing the social roles involved in illness and of the nature and extent of hospital care in the United States have led to the same conclusions.[5] Therefore, in the interests both of successful therapy and of humanity, it is usually recommended that scientific knowledge about illness and the practices associated with its cure be introduced in such a way as to take account of the latent functions of the indigenous behavior. But how practically to implement this recommendation is always a problem.[6]

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The Boeotian situation, to be sure, did not result from conscious planning along the recommended lines. It is here suggested, however, that this situation provides, in certain respects at least, the virtual equivalent of a case study in the successful operation of the recommended principles. The following description is presented with this in mind, and does not purport to be in any sense a total study of illness in the society described.

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Comparison of Home Care and Hospitalization

Let us first look at the treatment of illness in a Greek village home. Much as in the United States, the first day or so of fever or other sign of illness is treated with bed rest and home remedies. Aspirin is known, and in the Greek village of 1956 penicillin and other antibiotics are sold in the village store, and their use comes under the head of home remedies. But, significantly enough, the antibiotics will be administered only if some relative of the family (not necessarily a physician

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4. For a discussion of manifest and latent functions see Robert K. Merton, *Social Theory and Social Structure*, Glencoe, Illinois, The Free Press, 1949, pp. 21-81. See also A. H. Leighton and D. C. Leighton, *op. cit.*, and B. D. Paul, *op. cit.*, pp. 460, 477; also Lyle Saunders, *Cultural Differences and Medical Care: The Case of the Spanish-Speaking People of the Southwest*, New York, The Russell Sage Foundation, 1954.

5. Lawrence K. Frank, "Psycho-cultural Approaches to Medical Care," *Journal of Social Issues*, 8, 45-55 (1952); Talcott Parsons, *The Social System*, Glencoe, Illinois, The Free Press, 1951, pp. 428-479; Talcott Parsons and Renee Fox, "Illness, Therapy and the Modern Urban American Family," *Journal of Social Issues*, 8, 31-44 (1952); Leo W. Simmons and Harold G. Wolff, *Social Science in Medicine*, New York, The Russell Sage Foundation, 1954, pp. 170-193.

6. George M. Foster, "Relationships Between Theoretical and Applied Anthropology," *Human Organization*, 11 (1), 5-16 (1952); B. D. Paul, *op. cit.*, p. 476.

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which relatives can sleep. Even so, however, since private rooms are apparently unknown, there are always other patients to talk to.

The family has especially important social and psychological functions in Greece. Therefore, the presence day and night of family members in the hospital fulfills the latent function of emotional support. Such support is essential for Greek patients, because they feel useless and unwanted whenever an illness prevents them from fulfilling their customary roles in the household. When the family members can also care for a patient in the hospitals much as they can at home (e.g., bring and cook food for him and, if necessary, even feed him) his sense of isolation and strangeness is further lessened.

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A characteristic attitude of the Greek villager is a suspicion of other people's motives and actions.[9] He believes that people are not trustworthy and are more likely to cheat one than not. The opportunity for constant family conferences to check on the doctor's treatment of one's illness is considered a necessity. Once again, the presence of at least one relative at all times during a hospital stay assures the patient that he has someone nearby watching out for his interests and keeping an eye on the possible chicaneries of the doctors and nurses. A physician we interviewed mentioned as one of the reasons for permitting a relative to stay with a woman throughout an entire confinement, the fact that the visitor could then act as a witness. She would be able to testify to the new mother and to the other members of the family that the doctor had done his job properly. The doctor himself did not seem to feel that such a point of view reflected in any way on his integrity, but simply took it for granted.

Pros and Cons of Hospitalization

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What, then, are considered the special advantages of hospital care which impel the Greek villagers to incur the great expense and inconvenience of hospitalization? There is, of course, recognition of the fact that the doctor is almost continually on call in the hospital and the added sense of security this brings. For childbirth, there is no question but that the villagers believe that the doctor will do a better job. He knows more than the midwife and professional knowledge and skill is highly valued. But, I believe, what is of commensurate importance is the latent function hospitalization fulfills in the perpetual rivalry for prestige among village families. Hospital care is believed to be the sophisticated, urban way of caring for serious illness and childbirth. Hospitalization therefore can enhance family prestige. It is not uncommon for one or two sons of a village family to be educated sufficiently to obtain a white-collar job in a provincial town, in Athens, or even to be educated for and to practice one of the professions. The village girls, whose fathers can provide large enough dowries, marry a city or a town man whenever they can and so acquire husbands who are not village farmers. Since, in Greece, the family continues to act as a unit for some purposes even though its members are scattered over the city and several towns and villages, the

9. Harry L. Levy, "Property Distribution by Lot in Present-Day Greece," *Transactions of the American Philological Association*, 87, 45-46 (1956).

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taking good care of us." The government itself, aware of this shifting of responsibility and lack of participation, urges the people, in its organ, *The Battle for Survival*, to work for their own welfare and to turn to the State only for guidance, or when they can do no more for themselves. It tries to put this co-operation on a par with war, both in the title of its bi-weekly publication, and in the phrasing of its admonition. But the disrupting centralization, the hated interference, remains. "Compulsory free labour" is demanded of the farmers, and there is a whole class of compulsory co-operatives for the betterment of the villages. These are circumvented with the ingenuity born of long experience. However we also have a recent report of a village where everyone gets up when the church bell rings at four in the morning, to work, without compulsion, on some village project, with pride and enthusiasm. The work is done under the leadership of a villager respected for his ability and disinterestedness. It appears that when the co-operative pattern which is already present is utilized, the villagers will work together for the common welfare.

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342 stables and storage rooms, and in the upper story the living quarters with a verandah, a balcony, and a sink; over them is a flat roof of tiles. The Albanian form of the square fortified tower is to be seen on larger warehouses (Figure 3). The interior displays the customary simple furnishing of the Balkan dwelling; the semicircular chair in Figure 14 is reminiscent of the Albanian styles, while its horn-shaped supports remind one of Turkish influence. The weaving loom and the hatter's bow (Figure 11) that is used for the cleaning of wool and of cotton, have probably come to this country from the Orient, even though the hatter's bow is ancient European (compare the Plate, Estonians II). The baking bell shown in Figure 7, the bagpipes shown in Figure 6, the incense vessel shown in Figure 17, the wooden plow, shown in Figure 15, which is drawn by the team of oxen that are driven on by a goad (not a whip) and which are harnessed with a neck yoke--all these are universally characteristic of the Balkans. The riding donkey shown in Figure 12, on the other hand, points to the Orient. Figures 8 to 9 are illustrations of protective charms--the horse's skull is reminiscent of Kirghiz customs, compare volume 1 of this atlas, Plate, Kirghiz I, Figure 13, that are based upon the knowledge of spiritual forces which are everywhere alive, which are effective in everything that is and has being, and can be utilized for magical purposes, both in a good as well as in a bad sense.

177 [352] [415] [492] [777]

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II.

000 1. Men and women from western Macedonia. 2. Woman from

[See 1: Karutz, E1 Europe, Cat. 116, p. 73a --Analyst]